DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 327 057 FL 019 009

AUTHOR Pappas, Christine C.

TITLE Young Children's Discourse Strategies in Using the

Story and Information Book Genres: An Analysis of Kindergartners' Understandings of Co-Referentiality

and Co-Classification.

SPONS AGENCY National Council of Teachers of English, Urbana, Ill.

Research Foundation.

PUB DATE Apr 90

NOTE 43p.; Based on a paper presented at the Meeting of

the World Congress of Applied Linguistics sponsored

by the International Association of Applied

Linguistics (9th, Thessaloniki, Greece, April 15-21,

1990).

PUB TYPE Reports - Research/Technical (143) --

Speeches/Conference Papers (150)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.

DESCRIPTORS *Child Language; Classification; Comparative

Analysis; Discourse Analysis; Early Childhood

Education; Rindergarten; Language Research; Literacy; Literary Genres; *Nonfiction; *Reading Comprehension;

*Reading Strategies; *Story Reading; *Young

Children

IDENTIFIERS Emergent Literacy; *Referents (Linguistics)

ABSTRACT

This study investigated young children's development of understanding of two written genre registers, story and information books, by analyzing 5-year-olds' repeated pretend readings of a typical text of each genre. Ten female and 10 male kindergarten students were read 3 books in each genre during their kindergarten year. At each child's reading session, both a storybook and an information book were read and the child was invited to "pretend read" each book after it was read. All sessions were audiotaped. Results indicate the children were successful in re-enacting both genres and were very sensitive to the co-referentiality versus co-classification features of the two books. The ability to sustain the distinctive textual feature of the respective genre in their readings appears to be the same for each child. Book preference appeared to be unrelated, because most children preferred the information book. It is suggested that the preference for stories comes from pedagogy in early literacy, where story reading is emphasized, based on an unexamined ideology about young children's capacities in learning to use non-story language. Such pedagogy is seen as a possible barrier to children's full access to literacy. Transcripts of the children's "readings" are appended. (MSE)

^{*} Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made

^{*} from the original document.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION
CENTER (ERIC)

This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

- Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality
- Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

Young Children's Discourse Strategies in Using the Story and Information Book Genres: An Analysis of Kindergarteners' Understandings of Co-referentiality and Co-classification

Christine C. Pappas

University of Illinois at Chicago

Address: University of Illinois at Chicago

College of Education (M/C 147)

Box 4348

Chicago, IL 60680

USA

This paper is based on a paper presented at the 9th World Congress of Applied Linguistics, Thessaloniki, Greece, April, 1990.

The research reported in this paper was supported by a grant from the Research Foundation of the National Council of Teachers of English.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Running head: YOUNG CHILDREN'S DISCOURSE STRATEGIES



Young Children's Discourse Strategies in Using the Story and Information Book Genres: An Analysis of Kindergarteners' Understandings of Co-referentiality and Co-classification

A major factor in young children's literacy development is their coming to understand that typical written language is different from typical oral or spoken language (Holdaway, 1979; Pappas, 1987a; Pappas & Brown, 1987a, 1987b; Purcell-Gates, 1988; Smith, 1982; Sulzby, 1985; Wells, 1985, 1986). In everyday conversations—to use Wells (1986) phrase—"words fit the world." That is, attention is focused only partially on what is said since cues in the material context and in negotiated interpersonal interaction also contribute to the meanings constructed (Donaldson, 1978; Halliday, 1977; Hasan, 1984c). In contrast, written language "words create a world" (Wells, 1986); that is, the text itself is a greater carrier of meaning (Wells, 1985, 1986). A written text is more "constitutive" (Halliday, 1977; Hasan, 1984c), or what Tannen (1985) terms more "message-focused" communication.

Thus, what is involved in early literacy development is young children becoming aware of the symbolic potential of written language, their realization of the need to give full attention to the linguistic message in order to build a structure of meaning. Many have argued that young children learn about the nature of written language--its ragister (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, 1985) or "dialect" (Clay, 1977)-- by being read to, by hearing written language read aloud (Cambourne, 1981; Holdaway, 1979;

Smith, 1982; Teale, 1984; Wells, 1985, 1986). Moreover, it has been noted that when young children are read books, they tend to "re-enact" (Holdaway, 1979) or "pretend read" them (Butler, 1980, Crago & Crago, 1983; Doake, 1985; Sulzby, 1985). By examining these re-enactments or pretend readings, much has been learned about the strategies children employ in acquiring book language (Doake, 1985; Eller, Pappas, & Brown, 1988; Holdaway, 1979; Pappas, 1987; Pappas & Brown, 1987a, 1987b; Sulzby, 1985).

However, much of this emergent literacy research has emphasized children's sense of the story genre. But what do we know about young children's understandings about other genres of written language in general, or about the information book genre more specifically? Since stories and information books serve different social or cultural purposes, the meanings communicated in typical texts from each genre are realized by different linguistic registers, by different book language structures and patterns. We do have some evidence that children, at an early age, acquire a rudimentary awareness that written language is used for different purposes (Bissex, 1980; Harste, Woodward, & Burke, 1984), but studies that have compared older elementary children's competence regarding narrative and expository discourse forms (e.g., Hidi & Hildyard, 1983; Langer, 1935) suggest that specific knowledge about the organization of the textual properties of non-story genres may develop later than story understandings.

In fact, there is common assumption that narrative or story genre understandings is somehow "primary" (Britton, Burgess,



Martin, McLeod, & kosen, 1975; Egan, 1988; Moffet, 1968; Newkirk, 1989; Spiro & Taylor, 1987). The aim of this paper is to shed light on young children's strategies in their development of their understandings of two written genre registers—that of the story and information book genres—by analyzing kindergarteners' (five-year olds') repeated pretend readings of a typical text of each genre. And since the children would be using both genres, it was hoped that such an analysis would also provide important information regarding this "story as primary" assumption.

Discourse Features of the Story and Information Book Genres

There are, of course, different macro-structure or global elements for each genre². However, this paper focuses on certain "textural" feature differences (Hasan, 1984a, 1984b, 1984c, 1985). To better understand the nature of these linguistic properties, three major ones realized in the two genres are briefly outlined.

First, in storybooks frequently a character is introducted in the beginning of the book--for example, "a woodpecker" (as in The Owl and the Woodpecker by Wildsmith, 1971)--and then the author uses certain referent items. such as he, his, him, "the woodpecker," etc., throughout the story to refer to this same or identical woodpecker (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, 1985). In other words, identity chains can be formed to show this co-referentiality through the use of these cohesive devices (Hasan, 1984b, 1985; Pappas, 1987a; Pappas & Brown, 1987a, 1987b, 1988). Figure 1 depicts this woodpecker identity chain in the first part



of The Owl and the Woodpecker, as well as the identity chains for the woodpecker's tree and the owl.

Insert Figure 1 around here

Now, in an information book that involves an animal, such as "a squirrel" (as in Squirrels by Wildsmith, 1974), this animal is not "talked" about in the same way as the woodpacker character (or the woodpacker's tree or the owl). The same identical squirrel is not referred to, but instead the same class of squirrels is referred to. Thus, as Figure 2 shows, Wildsmith uses the same kind of form, a squirrel, in the first sentence of the book, as he did when he introduces a woodpacker in the beginning of The Owl and the Woodpacker in Figure 1, but here this form is employed to serve a different function.

Insert Figure 2 about here

In <u>Squirreîs</u>, Wildsmith again uses endophoric implicit wordings-he, his, their, etc., to refer to this class, but here they are
involved in forming a co-classification chain (Pappas, in press).
Thus, the first discourse feature that distinguishes typical
storybooks and information books involves this difference of coreferentiality versus co-classification.

Another textual feature that is different in the storybook and information book genres is verb tense. Specifically, in stories, except in quoted dialogue, the past tense is typically



The big the property of the contract of the co

used. For example, as illustrated in Figure 1, the woodpecker lived, slept, and worked, and the owl came to live, liked to work, and screeched, and so forth. In contrast, the verbs in information books are mostly in the present tense. Thus, in squirrels—refer again to Figure 2—Wildsmith employs verbs such as is, looks, grows, seems to have, and so forth.

Finally, another distinguishing feature of storybooks and information books is the extent to which certain relational processes -- what are called attributive, identifying, and possessive processes (Halliday, 1985) -- are realized in each genre. The presence of this linguistic property is one of matter of degree: stories possess these relational processes to some extent; whereas information books contain these processes to a large degree. For example, none of these types of processes can be found in the story excerpt (of The Owl and the Woodpecker, Figure 1). However, it is important to point out that such processes--perhaps an attributive process describing the woodpecker's feathers or beak, for example -- could have been included by the author of this book. In the information book excerpt (Figure 2), however, there is a density of relational processes. More specifically, there are examples of attributive processes ("he looks happy and mischievous"), identifying processes ("he is a furry small animal..."), and possessive processes ("he seems to have little socks on his feet").

Thus, there are three linguistic features in typical stories that are different from information books—the presence of co-referentiality as opposed to co-classification, past verb tense



versus present tense, and some rather than the predominance of relational processes. There are other distinctive discourse patterns of these two genres, but these exemplify some of the most significant generic discourse differences.

In this paper, the first textual feature described above-namely, the co-referentiality versus co-classification--of the two genres is emphasized. The linguistic device, "a plus noun," in the two texts/genres is a good case of same form, different function, that operates throughout our language system. How this form introduces an animal character on one hand, and a class of animals on the other, and the how implicit referent wordings are subsequently used to refer to each in the text from each representative genre, involve subtle form/function aspects of book language that children must begin to appreciate to become literate. An examination of their efforts enables us to gain useful information about how young children learn how to extend the functional potential of language (Halliday, 1978; Pappas, 1987b).

Method

The data to be examined and discussed here are part of a larger study. Twenty kindergarteners (ten boys and ten girls) were selected from two kindergarten classes at a suburban school, located right outside a large midwest urban city, in which children from a range of socio-economic background attended. These children were read six books--three storybooks and three information books--at three different sessions during their kindergarten year (in October, January and April). Children were



each session consisting of three consecutive days. Each time the children were seen, they were read both a story and an information book, and after each book was read, they were invited to take their turn to "read" or "pretend read" it. On the second and third days of each of the sessions, the same procedure was followed—the same two books were read, followed by the child's "pretend readings" of them. Nothing specific about any book (all were initially unfamiliar to the children) was pointed out, but the adult reader responded to any questions or comments the children had about the book. All sessions were audio—taped. The data for this paper come from the first session in October where children read The Owl and the Woodpecker and Squirrels, both books written by Wildsmith.

Results

As indicated above, this paper focuses on the coreferentiality of The Owl and the Woodpecker and the coclassification property of Squirrels. A general finding of the analyses of children's pretend readings of the two books is that children were very successful in xe-enacting both genres-both the story and the information book--and that they got better at it across the three readings. In short, children were very sensitive to the co-referentiality versus co-classification features of the two books. Protocols will illustrate these kindergarteners' discourse strategies as they attempt to sustain the respective textual feature realized in each book/genre.



Stor; examples are provided first, then excerpts from the information book are presented.

Story Examples

Example 1 shows Jean's first two readings of the beginning of The Owl and the Woodpecker--see again Figure 1 for the first sentences of the text.

Insert Example 1 about here

Reading #1 indicates she was very successful in re-enacting the book; it is quite easy to form identity chains for the woodpecker and owl. That is, she is very competent in sustaining the correferentiality of these two characters. Reading #2 is more filled in with respect to the content of the book, but she is again very successful in sustaining the co-referentiality features of the story. The "mr. owl" in this second reading is not found in the actual text, but this may be due to the fact that later on in the book a "Master Woodpecker" is referred to. It is interesting to point out, however, that this "mr. owl" designation is dropped by Jean in the third reading of the book (not included here).

Not all children were as successful as Jean, at least not initially. Example 2 of Jack's first and second readings of the first part of the book illustrates this.

Insert Example 2 about here



Sustaining co-referentiality involves keeping track unambiguously in their pretend readings the who/what in the story. So, "the owl" in unit 2 is unclear and the he in unit 4 could refer to either woodpecker or owl. Thus, co-referentiality is not so certain here. Note, however, that Jack is much more successful in this respect in the second reading.

One of the places where many children had initial difficulty in maintaining co-referentiality in a clear way was the place where beavers enter the scene in the story. The owl has not been able to sleep during the day due to the woodpecker's tapping.

Because the owl has become very crotchety and rude, the other animals in the forest believe that they have to do something.

They try to push down the owl's tree to get him to leave but are unsuccessful. It is at this part of the story that the beavers come to the forest. Figure 3 shows the text involving them.

Insert Figure 3 about there

Karen's three readings of this part of the book illustrates how most children dealt with it--see Example 3.

Insert Example 3 about here

In Reading #1, we have no idea who this they is. This pronoun seems even more confusing because she has used the verb "pecked" (for "gnawed"), which has been used to describe the woodpecker's



actions in the book. But, in Readings #2 and #3, you can see how much clearer she has become regarding these beavers.

Another place of initial difficulty for many children was where the resolution of the conflict or problem in the story occurs--see Figure 4.

Insert Figure 4 about here

This is where the storms comes and where the woodpecker "saves the day"--the woodpecker wakes the owl, who has fallen sleep and who has not realized that his tree is about to crash down.

Eddie's readings--Example 4--represent the manner by which most children handled these initial difficulties.

Insert Example 4 about here

In Reading #1, it is hard to sort out co-referentiality regarding the he's in the last two units--who do these he's refer to? But again, in Readings #2 and #3, the identification of the two characters is clear.

Information Book Examples

In <u>Squirrels</u>—see again Figure 2 for the beginning of the book—what is involved is how children are able to sustain co-classification, that is, how they are are able to refer to the class of squirrels in general. Although most children were successful at doing this, we did have two children who started their texts like a story. Example 5 is Judy's first reading.



Insert Example 5 about here

Up to unit 5, Judy is treating "a squirrel" as a character, thereby realizing co-referentiality in the construction of her text. Then at unit 6, she switches to "squirrels," and then subsequently uses of plural pronoun "they" to refer to squirrels. Thus, at unit 6, Judy switches from co-referentiality to coclassification.

Example 6 includes excerpts from Judy's second and third readings.

Insert Example 6 about here

In each reading she begins with "this is a squirrel," which is not the language of the book, but is a clear signal that the text she is about to construct as her reading is not a story. That is, she is showing that she understands that co-classification is invol/ed in reading this information book.

Example 7 shows Eddie's strategies regarding the switch from c. referentiality to co-classification in the beginning of his construction of his reading texts.

Insert Example 7 about here

In the first reading, there is a hint of a story--"once upon a time there was a squirrels" -- in his first unit. He begins with



the familiar story marker, and his "a squirrels" is a somewhat curious way to present the topic of the book--maybe we should see it as some sort of an extension. That is, the "a" of the "a plus noun" is present, but so also is the plural form "squirrels," which reflects an unconventional way to indicate that the class of squirrels is the topic of the text. In the rest of his text he uses either the plural lexical form "squirrels" or the plural pronoun "they" to refer to squirrels. Note also that--beginning at the scrond unit--Eddie uses only present tense verb forms. In Reading #2, co-classification seems to be sustained at the beginning.

Generally, at the beginning of the second day of a session, before we took our turns to read, we asked children which book we should read first. We then asked them if that book was their favorite or preferred book of the two. With Eddie, we forgot to ask him which he liked best at the second reading, so we asked him at the beginning of the third day or reading. Example 7 includes the short dialogue between Eddie and the adult reader about why he liked The Owl and the Woodpecker pest. His answer makes clear that he knows how different these two books--and genres--work.

Then in Reading #3, Eddie starts his text as a story, but then repairs to state the title, <u>squirrels</u>. In unit 1 you might think he is going to re-enact the text as a story again, but by unit 2, you are certain that he has not done so.

Thus, although two children started their texts story-like, they switched very quickly, showing an understanding of the co-



and the second of the second o

classification aspect of the information book register. In the other two collections, the information books dealt with an object [Tunnels by Gibbons (1984)] and a place [Big City Port by Maestro and DelVecchio (1983)]. None of the children started their reading texts for these books in a story-like fashion, so it could be that if children are prone to have an initial difficulty with co-classification, it may only occur with books about animal topics.

ومهارك والمحروب والمتحروبين والمحروب والمحروب والمحروب المحروب المحروب والمحروب والمحروب والمحروب

One part of the <u>Squirrels</u> book that children seemed to find especially interesting had to do with the varied purposes of squirrels' tails. They asked many questions and made the most comments during our reading of this section of the book--see Figure 5 for the text of the book.

Insert Figure 5 about here

Two linguistic patterns can be pointed about this excerpt from the book. Note first the repeated "when a squirrel..., he...." complex clause construction, and second, within this construction, note the fact that the author has used the singular forms--a squirrel and he--in relating this information about squirrels' tails.

Jack--Example 8--exemplifies how many children managed this section of the book.

Insert Example 8 about here



In his readings he used the plural pronoun they (to refer to "squirrels"), instead of the author's he, but this use does indicate that Jack has understood the co-classification aspects of the book. In addition, his three readings reflect an interesting struggle with the "when..." construction. The word when itself is found only once in Reading #1, and it is used only in the second part of the complex clause. In Reading #2, we have two "for when" constructions again in the second part of the clause. Finally, in Reading #3, in two units-except for the plural forms-the "when..." constructions are very close to the book's.

Jean's readings are even closer to the language to the book--see Example 9.

Insert Example 9 about here

In all of the three readings, when she uses the "when.." part of the construction, it is in the first part of the complex clause. In the first reading, she uses only plural forms, they or squirrels. Then in the second reading, midway in this section, she switches to the singular form—he and a squirrel. Finally, in Reading #3, a very close approximation of the language of the book exists.

The last example, Example 10, is an excerpt of Barr's second reading.

Insert Example 10 about here

Note the prevalence of the plural lexical form, squirrels, in his taxt. Many children used the plural pronoun (they) form; others, like Barr, used more the plural form of the the lexical term. It could be that the predominant use of plural forms is due to the fact that the book is entitled Squirrels. However, this use must be seen as an overextension as well, because there is equal use of singular and plural forms in the book. Moreover, and relevant to prese a discussion, this overextension is a strong indicator of children's understanding of this co-classification feature of the information book genere.

Conclusions/Discussion

The examples provided here indicate that young children are very successful in learning to sustain the co-referentiality properties realized in the story genre and the co-classification aspects found in the information book genre. We have not as yet completed a statistical analysis to correlate their use of co-referentiality and co-classification in the two respective books, but our impressions of the data lead us to believe that a high correlation will exist. That is, the capabilities to sustain the distinctive textual feature of the respective genre in their readings seem to be same for each child. In other words, individual children are not necessarily better in re-enacting the story than they are in the information book, or vice versa.

Nor does their performance seem to be related to their preference of the book. Six children (4 boys; 2 girls) preferred or liked better The Owl and the Woodpecker, thirteen children (5 boys; 7 girls) preferred Squirrels, and one child, a girl, liked both books. [In our second and third collections, almost all of the children preferred the information books--Tunnels (Gibbons, 1984) and Big City Port (Maestro and Delvecchio, 1983).]

So, what should we think about the common assumption about the primacy of story in light of these kindergarteners' skill in "reading" both the story and information book, and the fact that twice the number of children preferred the information book over the story? Why do young children seem so competence here in using information 'ooks, but not so only several years later, as research with older elementary children has indicated? Is it possible that our unacknowledged ideologies about young children and their cognitive/linguistic development in early childhood (Christie, 1989) might be a factor in their later lack of competence in using expository texts?

Perhaps our pedagogy in the early years of schooling is somehow responsible. An examination of two recent books on early childhood curriculum and reading instruction suggests that this may be the case, while only a brief treatment of each work of can be provided here. In Primary Understanding: Education in Early Childhood, Kieran Egan (1988) provides a detailed explication of what he believes to be the nature of the "sense-making" capacities of young children, what he also calls "bonnes a penser"--a term he borrows from Levi-Strauss (1962)--that means

"good things to think with." A basic feature of these intellectual capacities, he argues, is children's delight and expertise regarding story, and how story provides a means or technique for learning and remembering. For this reason, he recommends that early childhood programs make abundant use of story. In fact, the rules or forms abstracted from fictional stories should be "used to organize any kind of content, academic or experiential, in order to make it more accessible and meaningful to young children" (p. 108-109). That is, it seems, for Egan, that young children cannot make sense of anything unless it is "packaged" as a story.

to a the amortism that have been a constant and a first and a site and a second and

Marilyn Adams's (1990) book, <u>Beginning to Read: Thinking</u>
and <u>Learning about Print</u>, reflects a similar, albeit not such an
explicit, thesis regarding a story emphasis. Although at some
places, she recommends that young children should read broadly to
help them become readers, the materials she mentions in any
detail are stories (mostly in basal series), and when she
suggests that children's early writing might also support reading
(mostly because their invented spelling will foster phonemic
awareness of the orthographic patterns of English), only
references to writing stories are made. So, for Adams, like
Egan, the only genre that is (or should be) used in teaching
reading (or writing) in the primary grades is story.

Thus, our pedagogy in early literacy seems to be based on an unexamined ideology about young children's capacities in learning to use non-story language. Such pedagogy, then, may be obstructive, a barrier to children's full access to literacy.



The heavy diet of stories found in early childhood classrooms may cause young children's initial understandings of different written language registers to fade.

Learning to read, as Halliday has argued (1978), is fundamentally an extension of the functional potential of language. During the preschool years young children learn a lot about the lexicogrammatical realizations of the language system so that they are able to control a variety of oral language registers and genres. That is, they are able to express their own meanings and understand those of others in a range of social contexts. To become literate, however, the young child has to come to terms with certain important characteristics of written language -- its sustained organization and disembedded quality (Wells, 1985). Moreover, children need to understand that written language also consists of different conventional rhythms and structures to meet the various social purposes that written communication serves in our culture. The data presented in this paper suggest that young children are capable of taking on such a task. It is hoped, then, that these data will provide a beginning step in examining our assumptions about the primacy of narrative or story, which might, in turn, lead to the kind of instruction that will better foster young children's literacy development.



Footnote's

'The use of the term "typical" is important here, but its significance cannot be examined or discussed at any length because of space limitations. Typicality notions from research on concept formation (e.g., Rosch, 1973, 1975; Rosch, et al., 1976) have been applied to preliminary efforts to describe the generic structure potential for the information book genre (Pappas, 1987b, forthcoming). Briefly, this typicality approach argues that a genre is like a macro-concept. That is, our understanding of a particular genre and our ability to distinguish it from others rests upon the ways in which we abstract its linguistic features across many instances of its use in the same way we form concepts such as cat and dog. Inherent in this abstraction process is our tendency to treat certain members (or texts) of a category (or genre) as prototypes or as best examples of the category (genre). Other members, or texts, of a category or genre, then surround these more typical cases and represent a lesser degree of membership in the category (genre). Moreover, these typical members or texts of a category or genre reflect the redundancy of structure of the category as a whole, and cor sequently, it is at this level of abstraction that most category or genre boundaries are established.

Thus, this paper will emphasize the textual properties of a typical book from each of the information and storybook genres, but cannot cover linguistic patterns that may be realized or found in non-typical texts of these two genres. More details about the linguistic features of more "atypical" texts of these



two genres, and about the utility of a typicality approach to account for the probabilistic nature of genres in general, can be found in Pappas (1987b, forthcoming).

²A description of these global elements for the storybook genre can be found in Pappas (Pappas, 1987; Pappas & Brown 1987a, 1987b, 1988); an account of the macro-structure for the information book genre is discussed in Pappas (1986, 1987b, forthcoming).

The breakdown for the singular/plural forms found in the Squirrels book is:

Singular Forms		Plural Forms
lexical items (squirrel)	7	lexical items 7* (squirrels) *includes title
pronoun items	16	pronoum items 18
TOTAL	23	25



References

- Adams, M. J. (1990). Beginning to read. Thinking and learning about print. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press
- Bissex, G. L. (1980). Gnys at wrk. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Britton, J., Burgess, T., Martin, N., McLeod, A., & Rosen, H.

 1975). The development of writing abilities, 11-18. London:

 Macmillan.
- Butler, D. (1980). <u>Cushla and her books</u>. Boston: The Horn Book.
- Cambourne, B. (1981). Oral and written relationships: A reading perspective. In A. M. Kroll & R. J. Vann (Eds.),

 Exploring speaking-writing relationships: Connections
 and contrasts (pp. 82-98). Urbana, IL: National
 Council of Teachers of English.
- Christie, F. (1989). Language development in education. In R. Hasan & J. R. Martin (Eds.), Language development: Learning language, learning culture (pp. 152-198). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Clay, M. M. (1977). Reading: The patterning of complex behavior. Exeter, NH: Heinemann.
- Crago, M., & Crago, H. (1983). Prelude to literacy: A preschool child's encounter with picture and story.

 Carbondale: South Illinois University Press.



- Doake, D. B. (1985). Reading-like behavior: Its role in learning to read. In A. Jaggar & M. T. Smith-Burke (Eds.), Observing the language learner (pp. 82-98).

 Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Egan, K. (1988). <u>Primary understanding: Education in early</u> childhood. New York: Routledge.
- Eller, R., Pappas, C. C., & Brown, E. (1988). The lexical development of kindergarteners: Learning from written context. Journal of Reading Br. vior, 21, 5-24.
- Gibbons, G. (1984). Tunnels. New York: Holiday House.
- Halliday, M. A.K. (1977). Text as a semantic choice in social contexts. In T. van Dijk & J. S. Petofi (Eds.), Grammars and descriptions (pp. 176-225). Earlin: de Gruyter.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1978). Language as a social semiotic: The social interpretation of language and meaning. London: Longman.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1985). An introduction to functional grammar. London: Longman.
- Halliday, M. A. K., & Hasan, R. (1976). Cohesion in English. London: Longman.
- Halliday, M. A. K., & Hasan, R. (1985). Language, context,

 text: Aspects of language in a social-semiotic

 perspective. Victoria, Australia: Deakin University Press.
- Harste, J. C., Woodward, V. A., & Burke, C. L. (1984).

 Language stories and literacy lessons. Portsmouth, NH:

 Heinemann.



- Hasan, R. (1984a). The structure of the nursery tale: An essay in tert typology. In L. Coveri (Ed.), <u>Linguistica</u>

 <u>testuale</u> (pp. 97-114). A publication of Societa

 Linguistica Italiana. Rome: Bulzoni.
- Hasan, R. (1984b). Coherence and cohesive harmony In J. Flood (Ed.), <u>Understanding reading comprehension</u> (pp. 181-219). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Hasan, R. (1984c). The nursery tale as a genre. Nottingham Linguistic Circular, 13, 71-102.
- Hasan, R. (1985). The texture of a text. In M. A. K.

 Halliday & R. Hasan, <u>Language</u>, <u>context</u>, <u>text</u>: <u>Aspects of language in a social-semiotic perspective</u> (pp. 70-96).

 Victoria, Australia: Deakin University Press.
- Hidi, S., & Hildyard, A. (1983). The comparison of oral and written productions in two discourse modes. <u>Discourse</u>

 <u>Processes</u>, <u>6</u>, 21-105.
- Eoldaway, D. (1979). The foundations of literacy. Sydney:
 Ashton Scholastic.
- Langer, J. A. (1985). Children's sense of genre: A study of performance on parallel reading and writing tasks.

 <u>written Communication</u>, 2, 41-52.
- Levi-Strauss, C. (1962). Totemism. London: Merlin.
- Maestro, B., & DelVecchio, E. (1983). <u>Big city port</u>.

 Illustrated by G. Maestro. New York: E. P. Ducton.
- Moffet, J. (1968). <u>Teaching the universe of discourse</u>.

 Boston: Houghton Mifflin.



- Newkirk, T. (1989). More than stories: The range of children's writings. Porstmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Pappas, C. C. (1987a). Exploring the textual properties of "protoreading." In R. Stueele & T. Threadgold (Eds.), Language topics: Essays in honour of Michael Halliday Vol. 1 (pp. 137-162). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Pappas, C. C. (August, 1987b). Exploring the generic shape of "information books": Applying 'typicality' notions to the process. Paper presented at the 14th International Systemic Workshop, Sydney, Australia.
- Pappas, C. C. (in press). Young children's strategies in learning the "book language" of information books. Discourse Processes.
- Pappas, C. C. (forthcoming). Genre from a sociopyscholinguistic perspect'va. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Pappas, C. C., & Brown, E. (1987a). Young children learning story discourse: Three case studies. Elementary School Journal, 87, 455-466.
- Pappas, C. C., & Brown, E. (1987b). Learning to read by reading: Learning how to extend the functional potential of language. Research in the Teaching of English, 21, 160-184.
- Pappas, C. C., & Brown, E. (1988). The development of children's sense of the written story language register: An analysis of the texture of "pretend reading" texts. Linguistics and Education, 1, 45-79.



- Purcell-Gates, V. (1988). Lexical and syntactic knowledge of written narrative held by well-read-to kindergarteners second graders. Research in the Teaching of English, 22, 128-160.
- Rosch, E. H. (1973). Natural categories. <u>Cognitive</u>

 <u>Psychology</u>, <u>4</u>, 328-350.
- Rosch, E. H. (1975). Universals and cultural specifics in human categorization. In R. Brislin, S. Bochner, & W. Lonner (Eds.), Cross-cultural perspectives on learning (pp. 177-206). New York: Sage/Halsted.
- Rosch, E., Mervis, C. B., Gray, W. D., Johnson, D. M., & Boyes-Broem, P. (1976). Basic objects in naturinategories. Cognitive Psychology, 8, 382-439.
- Smith, F. (1982). <u>Understanding reading</u>. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.
- Spiro, R. A., & Taylor, B. M. (1987). On investigating children's transition from narrative to expository discourse: The multidimensional nature of psychological text classification. In R. J. Tierney, P. L. Anders, & J. N. Mitchell (Eds.), <u>Understanding readers'</u>
 understanding: Theory and practice (pp. 77-93).

 Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Sulzby, E. (1985). Children's emergent reading of favorite storybooks: A developmental study. Reading Research

 Quarterly, 20, 458-481.

- Tannen, D. (1985). Relative focus on involvement in oral and written discourse. In D. R. Olson, N. Torrence, & A. Hildyard (Eds.), <u>Literacy</u>, <u>language and learning</u>: <u>The nature and consequences of reading and writing</u> (pp. 124-147). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Teale, W. H. (1984). Reading to young children: Its significance for literacy development. In H. Goelman, A. A. Oberg, & F. Smith (Eds.), Awakening to literacy (pp. 110-121). Exeter, NH: Heinemann.
- Wells, G. (1985). Preschool literacy-related activities and success in school. In D. R. Olson, N. Torrence, & A. Hildyard (Eds.), <u>Literacy, language, and learning: The nature and consequences of reading and writing</u> (pp. 229-255). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Wells, G. (1986). The meaning makers: Children learning language and using language to learn. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Wildsmith, B. (1971). The owl and the woodpecker. Oxford:
 Oxford University Press.
- Wildsmith, B. (1974). <u>Squirrels</u>. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

The Owl And The Woodpecker

Brian Wildsmith (1971)

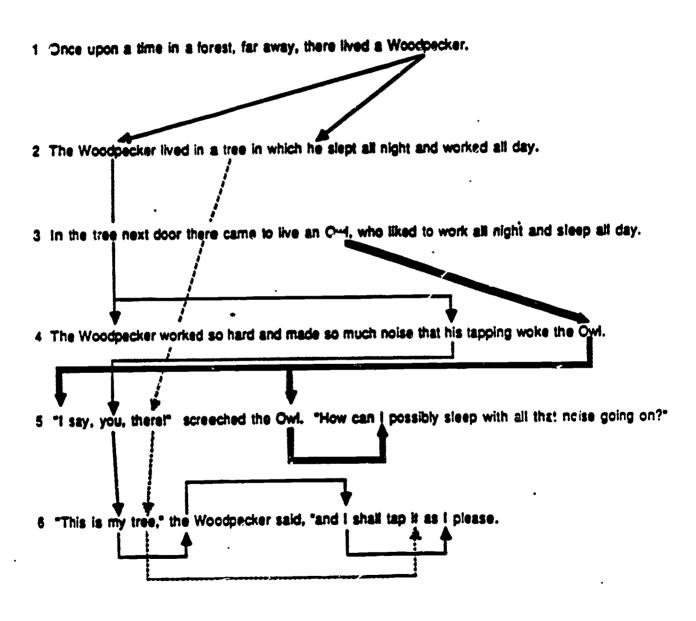


Figure 1

Squirrels

Brian Wildsmith (1974)

- 1 It is easy to recognize a squirrel.
- 2 He is a furry, small animal with a long, bushy tail,

two strong back legs, two small front paws,

two large tufted ears which stick up,

and two big front teeth.

- 3 He looks happy and mischievous.
- 4 In summer-time the squirrel's coat is quite thin.
- 5 But in winter-time it grows thick and strong.
- 6 He seems to have little socks on his feet

and warm fur-gloves on his front paws.

7 Squirrels live in trees.

Figure 2

The Owl and the Woodpecker

(Wildsmith, 1971)

- * Some time later two strangers came to the forest.
- * They were a pair of beavers,
- * and they took a fancy to the Owl's tree, and started to gnaw at the trunk.
- * Every day they gnawed a little more, until it seemed as if they would gnaw the trunk right through
- * Then one day a great storm shook the forest.....

Figure 3



The Owl and the Woodpecker

(Wildsmith, 1971)

- * The one day a great storm shook the forest.
- * The wind roared through the trees.
- * It was so strong the Woodpecker gave up tapping,
- * and so for once the Owl slept in peace.
- * The Owl's tree began to creak and crack and groan as the wind grow more and more fierce,
- * but the tired Owl slept soundly on.
- * Suddenly the Woodpecker saw the Owl's tree begin to sway and fall.
- * At once he struggled bravely through the storm and tapped loudly close to the Owl's ear to wake him.
- * The Owl work up in a fury, hearing the Woodpecker tapping on his tree,
- * but when he realized his tree was being blown down his anger quickly disappeared.
- * Together the Woodpecker and the Owl struggled to safety just as the tree crashed to the ground.

Figure 4



32

Squirrels

(Wildsmith, 1974)

- Probably no animal in the world uses his tail for so many different purposes.
- * When a squirrel leaps through the air from tree to tree, he can use his tail as a parachute,
- * and it even helps him to change direction
- * And when a squirrel swims, as he does sometimes, he can use his tail as a sail.
- * When he scurries along the bough of a tree, he can use it to balance and guide himself.
- * And when a squirrel sleeps, he wraps his tail round himself like a blanket.

Figure 5



[EX. 1] JEAN THE CAL AND THE WOODPECKER

Reading #1

- 1 once in the forest there was a woodpecker
- 2 [he] he liked to work all day and sleep all night
- 3 there was a owl next door in the tree
- 4 he liked to [work all day //no//] sleep all day and work all night
- 5 [one day] one day while [um] the woodpecker [was ch] was pecking on his tree the owl had pointed
- 6 and "not to disturb me" he said
- "now stop woodpeckering and go in your house and stay there"

- once upon a time there was a woodpacker that lived in the forest
- 2 the woodpecker like to work all day and sleep all night
- 3 next door there was an owl
- 4 he worked like to work all night and sleep all day
- 5 while the woodpecker was pecking his tree the owl was sleeping
- 6 and the tapping woke up mr. owl
- 7 mr. owl quickly pointed to the woodpecker and said "will you please stop pecking?"
- 8 "I would like to have a peaceful life around here"
- 9 "this is my tree"
- 10 "I may peck it if I like"



[EX. 2] JACK THE OWL AND THE WOODPECKER

Reading #1

the owl and the woodpecker

- one day in a far away forest lived a woodpecker

 //is that all? YOUR'RE IN CHARGE- OK//
- 2 [umm] the owl like to sleep
- 3 the woodpecker keepe, on pecking
- 4 but he wouldn't go to sleep
- 5 "stor"
- 6 the owl said "stop pecking"
- 7 but he wouldn't

Réading #2

the owl and the woodpecker

- once upon a time there was a owl and a woodpecker
- 2 the woodpecker keeped on pecking
- 3 and he worked all day
- 4 and he slept all night
- 5 but the owl worked all night and slept all day



[EX. 3] KAREN THE OWL AND THE WOODPECKER

Reading #1

- * each morning they pecked into the tree
- * then a storm came

Reading #2

- * some [stra] strangers came by
- * and they was nipping into the tree every morning
- * and then a terrific storm came

- * and some strangers came
- * they was a pair of beavers
- * they came every day gnawing [in] in the bottom of [the] his tree trunk until the storm came



[EX.4] EDDIE THE OWL AND THE WOODPECKER

Reading #1

- * but instead the windy night the woodpecker [er er] pecked him
- * so he woke him up
- * and he knew that [his] his tree was going to fall [down]
 down
- * so he flyed off of it

Reading #2

- * then when the storm was so windy it blowed down the tree
- * he pecked near his head
- * so he waked up
- * then the owl knew that the wind would blow his tree down
- * so he (...) safe

- * then there was a windy storm came up
- * and the woodpecker knew his tree was going to [come] break down
- * so he quickly ran over to his tree
- * [he (...)] he pecked next to the owl's ear so he'd wake up



[EX. 5] JUDY SQUIRRELS

- once upon a time there was a little squirrel
- 2 and he liked to eat leaves and (...)
- 3 and he liked to climb up up the tree and down the tree
- 4 when he's in the snow he likes to keep himself in his hole
- and when he is in his hole in the summertime he likes to carry up other things
- 6 squirrels can carry little things
- 7 and they also like to help the baby up the tree
- 8 sometimes the squirrels can run after something
- 9 [they can] and they swim sometimes
- 10 and they go up a tree somethimes
- 11 and when they are sleeping they are warm inside their tails
- 12 and they eat nuts acorns
- 13 and they eat birds' eggs
- 14 and they bury their nuts
- 15 [when] when the winter comes they sometimes forget where they are
- 16 and they eat lots of things in the garden
- 17 squirrels can do lots of things
 the end



[EX. 6] JUDY SQUIRRELS

Reading #2

- 1 this is a squirrel
- 2 [he] he can run around and climb trees and even come up close to you
- 3 [some squirrels] when you're [close] close to them they will bite you
- 4 and sometimes when you pet them they will bite you
- 5 squirrels in the wintertime their skin is furry
- 13 and squirrels can do lots of things
- 14 and they have sharp claws
- 15 and they can swim and climb trees
- 16 and they can even cuddle their (....)

- 1 this is a squirrel
- 2 they can eat plants
- 3 and they can make (...)
- 4 sometimes squirrels climb on tree trunks
- 11 they have (...)
- 12 they can jump from tree to tree
- 13 and they can swim
- 14 and they can climb trees
- 15 and they can go to sleep with their tail wrapped around them

[EX. 7] EDDIE SQUIRRELS

Reading #1

- once upon a time there was a squirrels
- 2 [they //let's see//] they have long fluffy tails
- 3 and they have two (...)
- 4 and they get a coat in the winter

Reading #2

squirrels

- 1 [they have] they have [furs] fur tails and ears at the top
- 2 at winter [they have] [they] they hide up in the tree

ADULT: NOW WHICH BOOK WOULD YOU LIKE TO DO FIRST?

Eddie: umm this one

ADULT: IS THIS YOUR FAVORITE BOOK?

Eddie: yep

ADULT: DO YOU LIKE IT BETTER THAN THE SQUIRRELS BOOK? WHICH ONE OF

THESE DO YOU LIKE THE BEST?

Eddie: this one ADULT: YEP - WHY?

Eddie: it has talking in it - this this one has talking

animals - this one just teaches about the squirrels

Reading #3

[[once upon a time there was a] [there was] there was] squirrel.

- 1 once there was a squirrel
- 2 and you could see them
- 3 they have long fuzzy tails and their ears up on their $h \in A$
- 4 at winter they have a fur coat



[EX. 8] JACK SQUIRRELS

Reading #1

- * they could use their tails for lots of things--almost more than any animal in the world
- * they could use it for swimming
- * for using as a parachute when they go up trees
- * to cuddle up on them at night so they can sleep like a blanket

Reading #2

- * [and they have] and they use their tail for lots of things
- * they use it to keep like a parachute for when they jump
- * they use it for (...) for when they swim sometimes
- * and they use it for climbing up trees and down trees
- * and they use it to cuddle it around it for a blanket

- * and they use their tails
- * [their] they use thier tails [for] for most things [for] from every animal in the world
- * when they jump to tree to tree they [use their] use it for parachutes
- * sometimes when they swim sometimes they use them for floats
- * and they use them to be guiding and go fast when they go up
- * and they use them for a nice blancket when they sleep



[EX. 9] JEAN SQUIRRELS

Reading #1

- * [when they] most animals don't use their tails
- * but when squirrels want to [um] fly from tree to tree they use their tail as a parachute
- * when they swim they use their tail as a sail
- * sometimes they [lay in] lay on tree branches that you can find laying in thick
- * when they go to sleep they use their tails [to] to cover them up

Reading #2

- * [no ani] no animal would ever use their tail for anything

 //I think whoops I forgot something//
- * squirrels use their tail to leap from tree to tree like a parachute
- * when they swim of course they will they use their tail as a sail
- * [when it wants to balance on a] when he wants to balance on a tree branch his tail helps him balance and stay up
- * when a squirrel goes to sleep he uses his tail to warm him up

- * probably no other animal or creature will use its tail
- * but when a squirrel leaps to tree to tree he uses his tail for a big parachute
- * and when a squirrel will swim he will use his tail for a sail
- * and when he wants to balance on a tree he can use his tail to keep him balanced
- * whon a squirrel would like to go to sleep he uses this tail to cover him



[EX. 10] BAPP SQUIRRELS

- squirrels are furry creatures that have long front teeth a bushy tail and strong back legs
- 2 in the summer they have fuzzy coats
- 3 they have socks that go on their feet little gloves that go on their hands and paws
- 4 [when they] when squirrels go in their house it's called a crow's nest
- 5 they eat an old branch for breakfast
- and when they have a squirrels that are bigger than the other ones they build a home for them
- 7 squirrels climb up and down the trees [to hide]
 and hide
- 8 most squirrels don't use their tail [for] for jumping
- 9 but they do use them for parachutes
- when squirrels [ah] swim like this one is they use their tail like a trunk that keeps them up
- 11 and they crawl on trees (... ...)
- when squirrels sleep in their house they use their tail as a blanker to keep them warm